

INTEGRATED EDUCATION
FOR
BLIND CHILDREN

FRAKES, G.

S. E. BOURGEAULT

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FOREWORD

It is a pleasure to write a foreword to this, the latest in a series of monographs, which I consider to be the most important work of its kind ever done in Asia.

For the first time ever, we now have a practical and factual description of integrated education in Asia, what it is and how it works. Its value lies in its breadth and depth of understanding of the problems confronting educators in Asia, and its brevity and simplicity in presentation. Any Government, any administrator, or any educator should find a great deal which will give him encouragement to take the first steps to open up opportunity of education to the tens of thousands of blind children who are today denied this fundamental right.

Not only should it encourage them to have sufficient faith in the rightness of education for blind children, but it shows them in as matter of fact a way as is possible, the logic of integration, and the logical sequence of development after that first initial step is taken.

I am certain that this monograph, together with the two previous monographs authored by Dr. Bourgeault, "Methods of Teaching the Blind: the Language Arts" and "Preparing Teachers of the Blind in Asia," in years to come, will be a notable landmark and turning point in the history of education of the blind in Asia.

Dr. Bourgeault is to be warmly congratulated for having the courage to write this monograph, and on his craftsmanship as a writer of professional material.

MAJOR D. R. BRIDGES

Director

Far East Regional Office

American Foundation for Overseas Blind



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INTRODUCTION

For many years Asian governments thought of education for the blind as “someone else’s responsibility.” They were busy organising minimum education, and then higher education, for many children and then for most children; but education was not available for *all* children.

Early school programmes for handicapped children were organised by missionary groups or by private philanthropies, and the field of special education owes a debt of gratitude to those religious pioneers who duplicated European experiences and showed that blind children in Asia, too, could be educated. The schools they started were residential schools: children were required to live at the school where they were clothed and fed as well as educated. And because they were “private” schools and “special” schools not organised by the government, education of the blind was for many years separated and remote from the regular education main stream.

It was many years before governments were asked to assist in partial support of these programmes. There has always seemed to be resistance to including these programmes under the direction and full support of government. But as schools for blind children were successful, and as governments made progress in their effort to improve service for all children, government interest in the programmes of these specialised schools increased. Earlier “token” support became more substantial. It is a rare country in Asia today which does not give considerable, if not total, financial support to these programmes which were formerly funded almost exclusively by private groups.

There was not a parallel increase in the *professional* attention which Government gave to these programmes. It has only been in recent decades that Governments recognised *both* their professional and financial obligations to offer education for blind children which is equal to opportunities for seeing children. There is much serious discussion in many Ministries in Asia about a government’s proper interest in education and special services for handicapped children. Although there are few countries in Asia today with trained supervisory staff at the national level, and there is no country in Asia today which has an education division or department exclusively concerned with the problems of exceptional children, these important goals will be realised soon.

A new approach has come about because of the increased number of people who understand the relationships between childhood experience and adult success; between proper instruction and academic and social accomplishment; between effective curriculum and suitable vocational aptitudes geared to local economies. Because of better communication and more effective medical service, an awareness is coming about that the needs of

exceptional children are most often *like* those of normal children. Professional acceptance grew out of this understanding. In Asia, this made possible the successful introduction of integrated education for the blind in the 1960's. Within one decade integrated education was firmly established for five Asian countries. Other countries have planned such service and still others are expressing interest in it.

Integrated programmes take many forms. All have the common goal of giving blind children maximum social and academic experience with their seeing peers. Resource Room plans, Itinerant Teacher plans, and combinations of these techniques can now be observed in Asia. Several Asian countries are now developing a national plan of varied services for blind children which includes the best of every kind of service in harmony with an individualised school placement system. Stronger residential programmes are coming about as a result of the overall increase in attention to blindness which is a direct result of the new ideas and attitudes found in integrated programmes. A *comprehensive* plan guarantees each child the opportunity to be placed in the kind of programme most suitable to him. It also gives him the opportunity to be re-evaluated and to be placed in a different school plan if his needs change.

It is the purpose of this monograph to present the essential methods of organising and maintaining a broad programme of integration. Established programmes may profit from the opportunity for evaluation and growth. Governments without the service will see that it is both necessary and within their capabilities.

WHY INTEGRATION

There are many thousands of blind children in Asia without the hope of an education. A broad system is needed which, when put into operation, would offer service to these individuals. The system chosen must be logical, educationally sound, and at a price governments can afford. **That system is Integration.**

Integration, itself, is the most important influence in bringing about understanding and acceptance of blind people. Its inclusion among general education has stimulated interest in other areas of exceptional condition. It has firmly established the idea that effective service for handicapped children is reasonable and proper from a humanitarian point of view and for very practical considerations of cost.

Integration places education of blind children directly into the general education system where it belongs. It makes available to the blind child the best thinking of the most experienced people at all local, regional, and national levels. Integration modifies attitudes toward blindness by bringing together blind and seeing children during the formative years of childhood. It gives the blind child an opportunity to enjoy a near-normal competitive school experience like his seeing peers, and in so doing relieves him of the need to consider himself at every moment and in every way a handicapped individual. It brings a new hope to the parents of each blind child; as their child lives at home, they have more opportunity to discover the many ways in which their child is like other children. Integration improves vocational opportunity for the blind. It helps the blind to meet their obligations of adjusting to a seeing world and it helps the seeing public to judge and accept individual blind children on the basis of *childhood*, rather than blindness: it introduces the blind to problems of adjustment to the seeing world at an *early* age when they are most flexible and before they become fearful of the world through years of atypical social experience.

The children to be served have various eye problems, and they vary in the amount of their visual loss. Some children are totally blind; some have a little remaining vision which helps them to move about and to adapt socially; others have even more remaining vision but still require special services. Educational programmes must consider *all* levels of various visual loss. A high number of children with eye problems may also have some other serious handicapping conditions as well; programmes must account for those with multiple problems. A loss of vision can occur at any time; there are always some children who are in need of a programme of rapid tutoring in substitute basic communication skills such as braille and use of the slate and stylus. Also, in Asia there are many older blind children who have never been in school who must be introduced into the

school system as over-aged beginners. Children who are too young for school are most responsive to careful guidance. The years from one to six are now known to be the most important years for learning attitudes and habits which affect one's entire life. A truly effective programme of education must account for all these children.

Integration is educationally valid. Much experience in both the West and the East has shown that the general needs of all children, whether sighted or blind, can be met in regular classrooms. Special needs can be met as well by adding the services of a specialised teacher as needed. Integration has a positive effect on a blind child *and* his seeing classmates.

Integration is practical. Blind children in the classroom have the same kind of schoolwork, the same amount of schoolwork, and the same access to suitable materials as their classmates. The regular transportation facilities of an area can be suitable for the visually impaired child.

Integration can be accomplished at minimum cost. Money for special teachers' salaries, teaching materials, transportation for professional workers, etc., are required. But special buildings and duplications of land areas and playground equipment are not required because the blind are enrolled directly into the existing school classrooms.

Integration requires a climate of acceptance, but once begun *creates* approval because methods and materials are so much *like* regular methods and materials, and the visually impaired children, themselves, are so much *like* their sighted classmates. Integrated education is logical, educationally sound, and available at a price Governments can afford. It is of major importance as a system which can offer service to many thousands of blind children in Asia who have never before been able to hope for an education.

FINDING THE BLIND CHILD

Specific school programmes cannot be developed until the children are found, their eye conditions evaluated, and their educational needs considered. Only tentative plans can be made before children have been located, but lack of *some* school plan cannot be accepted as a legitimate reason for failure to find the children and consider their needs.

The World Council of Welfare for the Blind has made recommendations about a workable, universal definition of blindness. While this represents the best thinking of internationally recognised leaders in the field of blind welfare and education, there are many who with good reason use slightly different criteria. For example: in one Asian country, welfare workers apply the recommended WCWB definition of 6/60 visual acuity in the better eye with best correction; educators use a rating of 3/60; medical eye specialists use still another which is even more restrictive—i.e. 1/60. This shows how careful one must be in discussing “blindness.” Educators sometimes describe children who require braille instruction as “educationally blind.” This definition rules out thousands of children in Asia who are seriously visually handicapped, who cannot use regular learning materials as a result, but who still have so much vision that they should not be expected to use braille. Children with *all* levels of serious visual loss must be listed by a survey group: surveys must list all children who are VISUALLY IMPAIRED—children who are so visually handicapped that they require different learning materials and/or different methods of instruction in order to have a competitive educational experience with seeing children.

Also, there are large numbers of children who have problems additional to blindness. One special group is particularly difficult to evaluate. Symptoms of mental retardation, emotional disturbance, experience deprivation, or brain damage are easily confused. All multi-handicapped children should be included in surveys so that authorities know more about how many there are, where they are, and what specialised services they might need.

Structured Surveys are Needed

Ministries of Health or Welfare or Education have often asked their workers for reports on the number and location of blind people in their areas. If these general requests include children, the results are usually only a small part of the actual number of children who could be found with more intensive survey techniques. In most places blind children are noted from time to time but the reporting agencies are not *specifically* looking for blind children—it is rarely the main purposes of the service. If they are found, it is incidental.

In general, organised case-finding is rare. When it occurs, it is often restricted to certain kinds of children who need a certain kind of service. Until good centralised case-finding programmes are developed, someone must aggressively look for the children who need help. Blind registry regulations do not work, especially those where the *parents* are expected to notify authorities about their handicapped child because :

1. Definitions of blindness or visual loss are not understood.
2. Families are often embarrassed by having blind children because of personal or religious beliefs. As a result, they will not come forward.
3. In rural areas, and in less literate populations, even parents who want to co-operate never learn of such regulations, or of the opportunities for social or educational services.

How much surveying and how often are local matters. The best surveys thus far have been done by special teachers in training (*See Appendix A*). Teacher preparation programmes should be relieved of such work when better national planning occurs because such plans take time from other necessary work, but the disadvantages must be weighed against the risk of depending on other less fruitful case-finding methods.

Keeping the Local Community Informed

Whoever assumes survey responsibilities must make a special effort to keep local school, health, and welfare officials professionally concerned about the progress of the survey and the final results. Through knowing about the handicapped children in their own communities, professional skills and administrative experience can best be used in planning for those blind children who are found.

Statements of the purpose of the survey and information about the proposed programme for visually handicapped children may be prepared. Since individual surveyors may be making the very first agency contact with a teacher, administrator, or parent, they should be ready to discuss education for the blind intelligently, and perhaps leave materials for later reference. The same explanation of programme and purposes would not be equally good for each direct contact; a parent and an administrator might each want to know different things about blind children. Separate literature should be prepared for separate purposes.

Organising the Search

Much can be done by those in charge to prepare a well organised, thorough, practical search for blind children. Endorsement from the Minister of Education, the Governor or other administrative heads are of great

help in gaining the co-operation needed. Once the plan is prepared and presented, local officials are quite helpful and not only support the survey, but make good suggestions for improvements based on their own wide knowledge of their programmes and areas of jurisdiction.

Surveyors must be carefully trained; careful survey schedules must be arranged, including local transportation; there must be supervision of surveyors. A trial survey is helpful in order to test usefulness of all prepared materials and forms, and to evaluate the overall technique.

Where Should Surveyors Look

The best method thus far developed for finding blind children in need of educational services is the district-, region-, or nation-wide survey of elementary school-age children. In this system, trained specialists go directly into elementary classrooms, explain characteristics of blindness in a very simple manner, and invite students to report to the surveyor those children in their neighbourhoods known to exhibit the described characteristics.

This method is based on the belief that elementary school-age children are aware of and interested in their neighbours, and are curious about differences in behaviour. It has the advantage of wide coverage of the population in minimum time. Such a method is best where most children of elementary age attend school. Where there is low attendance, other techniques need to be considered.

Records of other agencies and professional individuals should not be ignored. The usefulness of each of the following varies from place to place:

Medical Eye Specialists

Medical records of patients are sometimes helpful. But the use of such records may be limited by language or vocabulary difficulties, differences in definition, or purpose. Few doctors keep records on those they have examined but cannot help. Thus, only those cases of visual impairment improved by treatment or glasses may be noted in the doctor's files. Also, a high percentage of blind children are never brought to the doctor for examination.

Hospitals

If the problem of using confidential records can be overcome, and if modern medical-library techniques are used, admission and surgery records may be of value. Even then, the information is only a part of what must be known. Not all Asian children are born in hospitals; and, only obvious congenital eye problems can be detected at that time. The average medical-eye problem is not treated in the hospitals of Asia.

Social Welfare Agencies

Some social welfare agencies have records of disabled persons; others try to keep records on people who are blind or seriously visually impaired. Although social services are slowly replacing the older ideas of welfare assistance, the average citizen does not understand this difference. He is not known, nor does he allow himself to become known to such agencies unless he and his family are in great financial difficulty. Furthermore, vision problems have many causes and are not restricted to the poor. The family of average means would not be likely to request assistance or to be known to a social welfare agency.

Visiting Nurses

Because they know the people of their community, and because of the broad nature of their work, visiting nurses may be a good source of information leading to discovery of visually handicapped children.

Midwives

In most Asian countries, the local midwife is a well trained and well known member of her community. She is often able to note obvious eye problems of the babies she delivers. She may also be acquainted with the older children of each family she serves.

Village Leaders

In many Asian cultures, group leaders are either assigned or elected. In small communities, these people often have knowledge of the personal circumstances of families in a given locality.

Police

In some countries, police are given responsibility for recording cases of blindness. Local police are often a good source of information on those within their city or village.

Population Centres

In some countries, there are centres responsible for gathering information on many personal facts of general interest to government agencies responsible for the well-being of the public: marriages; births; occupations; and, in some cases, handicapping conditions are noted on their records.

These suggestions are only representative of the type of agencies and persons which should be consulted. It is important to develop a complete list of possible local sources of information. It is of equal importance to recognise the limits of each source.

Visits must be made to every possible source, objectives explained, records examined, and help requested when it seems worthwhile. Even if lists of possible blindness or severe visual loss are not reliable, or too old, the surveyor can still explain his programme and stress the value of sharing information. Such agencies may be of greater help in the future if they learn something of the purposes, methods and plans of the survey.

A survey by questionnaire is of little value in locating blind children. Problems of definition, the over-use of questionnaires, and the fact that the blind children rarely come to the attention of those who complete such forms all contribute to general dissatisfaction with this method. Some Asian countries have used this method exclusively. The results are always disappointing. While questionnaires can be a helpful part of a total survey, they will not do the job alone !

MEDICAL EYE INFORMATION

Qualified eye doctors (ophthalmologists, oculists)* can be found in fair numbers almost everywhere in Asia. An eye examination by such a doctor must be arranged for every child being considered for placement in school. Perhaps eye surgery will correct the problem; perhaps glasses will be recommended; perhaps the visual problem is connected with other health problems which need to be considered. Because this information is so important and because school plans should be made whenever possible on the basis of this information, the medical eye examination should be scheduled *soon after* the child is discovered and *before* any specialised school plan is arranged. The professional worker should not arrange a change of school or otherwise interfere in the normal life of a child without good reason.

In every country in Asia, those responsible for evaluating and making school placements have found it helpful to hold special clinics so that many children can be examined at one time. The co-operation of a local eye specialist can usually be obtained. Some doctors welcome the help of teachers and others in organising or assisting in parent interviews, and in completing general information forms. Helpers can also manage the smooth flow of patients in and out of the examination room, and in many ways help the doctor to use his time to efficiently examine the greatest possible number of children in one place. In some programmes, client transportation is provided or subsidised by the educational programme which needs the information from an examination. Since the examination is required by school authorities for special placement purposes, any fees are usually paid by the schools. Some parents may have arranged previous medical eye examination and services for their children and additional examinations seem useless to them. Others have never had the opportunity for, or interest in, such service or could not afford it. Many parents have gone directly to a commercial firm which measures visual ability and manufacturers and sells glasses. Such firms rarely have qualified staff to diagnose and treat medical problems‡. The difference between a commercial centre and a medical service must sometimes be interpreted. The purpose of the special examination needs to be explained.

Specialised medical clinics are popular in Asia and it is common for a doctor to volunteer his services at no cost to a programme. In some countries, medical eye specialists are employed on a full-time or part-time basis by various government health, welfare, or education departments. One

* See: S. E. Bourgeault, ed., *Glossary of Professional Terms for use in the Area of Services to the Visually Impaired in Asia*, AFOB/FERO. (Kuala Lumpur, June, 1969), pp. 27-28.

‡ Also see: Optician, Optometrist, p. 28.

country has a very complete system of county hospitals; a staff ophthalmologist in each centre chooses certain dates for medical eye examination service exclusively to the local integrated education programme. This is ideal because the medical specialist is locally available to provide follow-up service.

Wherever the examination is held, the doctor makes a report; much can be learned from it. (*See Appendix B for suggested form.*) From the diagnosis, and on the basis of his experience, he is often able to give an estimate of any changes which may occur in the future. The doctor knows at once if the child can be helped by glasses. If special medicine is required he will clearly say this; proper instructions will be given the parents on how much medicine is needed and how often it should be used. If the child's vision needs to be examined again, or if any medical problem requires further attention, the family and school authorities will be told what is required and where to go for service.

All this information affects special teacher judgement. The teacher is able to make a comparison between how the child performs visually in a clinic and how well he uses any remaining vision in everyday situations. A great difference between the two warns the teacher of the need to learn *more* about the child's early experiences, his social and emotional development, his intelligence, and many other factors which may keep him from using his eyes to best advantage. The teacher adds medical eye information to other facts he has learned about each child. He can then make the best possible selection of the kind of school programme, the kind of specialised methods and, especially, whether or not the child should become a braille reader.

CHOOSING AN INTEGRATED PLAN

The integration of blind children can take many forms. In all of them the blind child is in class with sighted children most of the time. He has the same lessons and should take the same tests. All lessons which are basically oral can be undertaken in the regular classroom; those parts of learning which are presented from regular textbooks should be available in braille so that he can follow these regular activities in the class as well. If a child needs special materials such as raised maps or other three dimensional aids, he must get these from his special teacher. Special tutoring should be required only in those skills that are special because of his blindness.

Resource Room Plan

In the Resource Room plan, eight or ten blind children from one community are brought together each day into one regular school. The children are assigned to regular classrooms at the right level for their age. The teacher of their regular classroom is responsible for the general educational plan and for teaching the ordinary subjects which are required of all children. Within the school there is a special teacher of the blind who has a room for tutoring individual children and preparing materials. The Resource Room has available the braille writing equipment, special maps, and other aids or devices which may be needed. The special teacher is available to the regular teacher as well as to the child; suggestions on teaching, help in planning activities or units of instruction, and information about blindness may be obtained from this specialist.

Itinerant Teacher Plan

In the Itinerant Teacher plan, the blind children attend their regular neighbourhood school where they are placed directly into regular classes appropriate to their age. A special teacher of the blind travels between many schools bringing materials and equipment, scheduling tutoring sessions, and holding conferences with teachers and administrators. No special room is assigned in each school on a full-time basis. The special teacher may tutor the children in the principal's outer office, he may share a room with the school nurse, he may work at a temporary desk in the shade of a tree on the school grounds or in a quiet corner of a school corridor. Materials are usually prepared and aids and appliances are generally stored in a central office rather than at a child's school. If special aids are required for instruction, they must be brought at the time when the student needs them. Usual services are provided to regular school staff, to families, and to the blind children. The main difference of the programme is in the movement of the teacher rather than the movement of the children.

Choosing the Plan

Both programmes require money for equipment, and require the services of a properly trained special teacher who must have time to prepare materials and to confer with parents and regular teachers. Both need an assigned work space. But each has differences which must be weighed when the initial choice of plan is made.

There are many factors to be considered. The number of blind children to be served in relation to the number of special teachers available is important. The geography of the community or area to be served must be considered. Where the children live, their distance from one another and from available schools, and the kind of local transportation available will affect the choice of plan. One must weigh and compare the advantages or disadvantages in having a special teacher travel among all of them. The age of each of the children must also be considered—older children are usually more independent than young children. Grade levels of the children affect the kind and amount of special material and special instruction required.

When all of these factors are taken into consideration, one programme plan may be preferred above another. The Itinerant Teacher plan seems to work well when the children to be served are able to function independently between special teacher visits. In theory, the Itinerant Teacher plan provides more suitable after school experiences for the blind child. He is at almost all times with his neighbourhood friends or in the company of brothers and sisters while walking to and from school and while playing after school. For some children, however, this is not as important as the difference in the amount of help available from the special teacher. In the Resource Room plan the special teacher is always available; this is important to the child who is more dependent and needs more help.

It is hoped that emphasis would be placed on the needs of the blind children for special instruction and for independence rather than on administrative convenience. One type of programme may be easier for the special teacher to manage. One type of programme may be more convenient for purposes of supervision, regular staff orientation, or distribution of equipment. These factors are important, but they are important from the point of view of administration. They are not important from the point of view of presenting superior educational experience in the most typical social circumstances.

Combination Plan

In some situations certain children clearly need one kind of programme and other children need another. If the special programme is small and there is only one teacher to provide service to all, a Combination plan—

a mixture of the two types of programmes—might be arranged. A special teacher might serve in a Resource Room each morning of the week, accommodating in that school four or five children who are slightly more dependent or younger and in need of more regular special instruction. In the afternoon, while those blind children remain with their regular teachers, the specialist may become an Itinerant Teacher, going to several other schools on some rotating basis in order to tutor and to provide special services for another group of children who seem best placed in their own neighbourhood schools. This type of service is especially appropriate for small communities and is often necessary when the span of age of the children being served extends throughout all of the formal school years.

Altogether, one must decide where each child is most likely to get most of the kind of service and the amount of service that he requires. Placement in a particular type of programme is then made on an individual basis; it should be reviewed annually for a change of circumstances which may require a change of programme.

THE REGULAR TEACHER/ THE SPECIAL TEACHER

Competent, special teachers are essential to a good integrated school programme.* Teachers of integrated blind children need first to be experienced teachers of sighted children. Because their responsibilities are varied and demand a high degree of maturity, only those who have shown the very best skills in getting along with other teachers and children have been considered. Vitality, flexibility, and an ability to work independently are desirable qualities of all teachers, but are especially important in integrated programmes.

The regular teacher and the special teacher share responsibility to a blind child. The duties of each should be clearly described at the beginning of a programme. In general, the regular teacher has the responsibility for all regular instruction and for the overall planning of the children in her class, including the blind child. The special teacher has a responsibility for teaching special subjects peculiar to blind children—such as writing with mechanical and manual braille writing instruments, use of recorded material, use of reader service, how to move about the school independently, and the use of appropriate dimensional materials as are required from time to time. Because of the shared assignments, finding time for discussions of the blind student's problems and needs is an obligation of both.

One of the purposes of integration is to give the blind child the same courses, the same mode of instruction, and, in general, the same academic experiences as those enjoyed by his seeing classmates. Regular assignments are duplicated in braille; modifications may sometimes be necessary; activities more meaningful to a blind child may occasionally be substituted; rarely, an activity may be omitted. There should be no misunderstanding about the idea of equal opportunity for blind children: in some cases *additional* instruction and *specialised* materials are required in order to prepare the blind child so that he can compete *equally*.

Evaluating student performance is the responsibility of the regular classroom teacher. The specialist sees that all special test materials are available and discusses with the regular teacher any modifications which may be required. Braille test answers are later transcribed into a form which can be evaluated by the regular classroom teacher. Scoring and evaluation are then completed for the blind student in the same manner as for his sighted classmates.

* This topic is covered in detail in: S. E. Bourgeault, *Preparing Teachers of the Blind in Asia*, AFOB/FERO, (Kuala Lumpur, January, 1970).

The well organised specialist has ready at all times extra activities, practice assignments, review exercises, and other supplementary material which can be presented at a moment's notice in order to fully take advantage of the limited time he has with each blind child. Some materials can be organised so that they are of interest and of help to both the blind child and his seeing classmates. Arithmetic computation activities, vocabulary drill, and many educational games can be organised in such a way that the regular classroom teacher can have them available when the blind child and some of his classmates have spare time to use together.

A regular classroom teacher becomes a better teacher of *all* children when she has a blind child in her room. Special methods in using all of the senses are recommended for the sake of the blind child; the teacher discovers that this multi-sensory approach works best for every child. Seeing children not only alter their attitudes about the ability of the blind, but they widen their own social understanding of the world.

The regular teacher understands that certain specialised equipment is of help to the blind student. He must have braille writing equipment, he must have braille paper, and he must have a suitable place to store his oversized textbooks. In a Resource Room other special aids and appliances, such as hand magnifiers and typewriters, are available. In the Itinerant Teacher programme, these materials may be assigned to a child within a school, not as personal appliances which are the property of the student, but as supplementary instructional materials which are on loan to the school for that student's use for as long as necessary. The regular teacher helps by planning for suitable storage and work spaces, and helps the student to become an orderly worker.

An integrated programme is most successful when basic braille textbooks are available through the services of some agency or voluntary group. The special teacher cannot perform all special instruction, the preparation of supplementary materials, and individual work for each of the children in his service, if, in addition, he has to prepare basic texts in braille as well. He must be prepared to braille chapters or small parts of books which came late to the attention of the regular teacher. But at the earliest possible time, an organised transcribing programme should be used to relieve him of this repetitive and basically non-educator activity. A skilled special teacher organises his time and his programme so that most energy can be given to making individual the specialised instruction each student requires; he delegates the routine preparation of text materials and the three dimensional teaching aids to transcribing units, to organised volunteer groups, or to interested parents. A special teacher is available to answer questions on problems of blindness, to interpret a child's vision problem, to recommend modified instruction in regular class,

to do all necessary special teaching, and to be understanding of the regular teachers' early anxieties; he gives support and confidence to both the blind child and the teacher who serves him on a daily basis.

Contact with the Regular Teacher

All possible must be done to allow the regular teachers' best efforts to come forth. Regular teachers often have questions which they want to ask. They may have materials or experiences in their classroom which they need to discuss with a specialist. Frequent communication between the regular teacher and the specialist makes this possible.

Formal conferences are scheduled by some specialists as often as three times during the school year. This would include an *orientation session* at the beginning of the school year, *mid-year discussion* for evaluating the adequacy of the special service in meeting the child's needs, and an *end-of-year conference* which reviews accomplishments and establishes goals for the future. Informal conferences are an added advantage: a brief visit before school or a meeting during a teacher's preparation period can easily be arranged. These will help strengthen the teacher's confidence in knowing that specialist help is truly available "on call". Rather than preferring one type or another, successful specialists arrange both formal and informal teacher interviews.

Beyond communication about special matters and at regular intervals during the year, there is need for a daily communication system. The regular classroom teacher must have a routine method of making her needs known; the child may need supplementary materials prepared quickly. The regular teacher and the specialist need to agree on a system that will make this possible.

The Specialist's Teaching Schedule

A weekly plan is helpful as a technique for being certain that all important activities are included in the teaching schedule. In those school systems which require teachers to "sign in" or to be in daily attendance at a designated site, a weekly special teacher plan which lists daily activities is usually an acceptable substitute. Some administrative systems require periodic teacher reports of activities; a special teacher with varied activities will find that a weekly plan is a convenient reference for writing later about what has been done. Many of these activities will not be in direct service. The specialist has responsibilities other than teaching; he is expected to accomplish them within the time structure of his job.

Pre-prepared weekly or daily schedules are only estimates. A half hour visit at one school may have required an hour of teacher preparation; a child's absence from school on any day may relieve a teacher from

the need to visit that school at that time; a conference may be extended to include special problems that have arisen. Through experience, a special teacher will become skilled in estimating blocks of time required but administrators should understand that not everything can be anticipated. Therefore weekly or daily schedules submitted in advance are probable; they are *not* absolute !

Administrators may need to set limits; these limits should be defined at the beginning of a programme in discussions between the specialist and his supervisors. If the supervisors or other administrators understand the nature of the Integrated programme they will realise that a schedule cannot be rigid: it must be interpreted flexibly. A Resource teacher becomes a full member of the school selected, but an Itinerant teacher should not be assigned as a staff member of one particular school. If this cannot be avoided, such an assignment should in no way limit the teacher's necessary activities, limit his flexibility, or require supervisory approval for any reasonable change.

The weekly schedule should reflect a certain amount of time spent in routine preparation of materials or other important tasks which must be done. The schedule should include regular activity in the central office so that the specialist can communicate with other people attached to the central administrative unit. The schedule should include time for counselling, outside service and other duties related to blind children in the area.

It is most important that everyone realise that it is impossible to predict all of the needs or problems which may arise. Therefore, the special teacher alone is in the best position to make final schedule revisions.

TRANSPORTATION

There is some travel in almost all education. In integrated programmes for the visually handicapped, movement is merely increased. Because of the widespread location of comparatively small numbers of blind children and because of the need for each teacher of the visually handicapped to serve a fair number of them, transportation may be critical to success or failure.

In Resource-type programmes, some children may need to be transported daily. In an Itinerant-type programme, the teacher assumes the burden of greater travel, literally taking the service to the child, rather than moving the child to the service. It is too simple to say that the administrator decides between having the child come to the teacher or the teacher come to the child. Such matters are administrative, but should be based on *professional* recommendations of the vision specialist, who can best evaluate the basic factors in choosing between a Resource or an Itinerant integrated programme. Good planning would place the needs of the child for certain social-educational experiences first, and a solution to the resulting transportation problems later.

Transportation needs vary. There are no *absolute* systems. There is no “*best*” transportation plan; but, whenever possible, the blind children should come to school as seeing children do.

If the Teacher Travels to the Student

Itinerant teachers in Asia are currently using: bicycles, motor scooters, motorcycles, pedicabs, buses, trains, boats, and some are walking added distance in extremely remote areas. Usually the fastest travel is best, but speed, cost, convenience, and suitability must all be considered. Child needs determine the programme; the programme prescribes the travel. A school system needs policy and a flexible plan to allow flexible transportation.

Necessary vehicles should be provided by the school system or other government agency. If teacher transportation is to be obtained especially for a vision programme, the different requirements of male and of female specialists should be considered: for example, a 90 c.c. motorcycle may be too heavy for a small woman, whereas a 50 c.c. unit may be too fragile for heavy use by a large man. The variations in road conditions should be evaluated; power requirements for rugged terrain may affect choice of vehicles.

If personal vehicles of teachers are used, a depreciation allowance should be granted. Also, a fair reimbursement should be paid for fuel, maintenance, and any necessary licence fees and taxes. If public transporta-

tion can be used most efficiently, fares should be paid by the district. The usual problems of delays due to transportation scheduling must be recognised in planning teacher assignments.

If the Student Travels to the School

Much has been said about the hazards of independent travel for the blind in Asia. A careful evaluation of individual travel arrangements, however—instead of over-generalisation—will show a great range of difference between children.

The questions to ask are: “How do other children of similar age travel? What modes of transportation are available? Of them, which are customary for school children?” Answers to these basic questions may open up new ideas of ways for blind children to travel to school.

The next question must be: “How independent is the child?” Many need far less help than we suppose—and obtain much satisfaction in learning the skill needed to be allowed to join in with the other neighbourhood children.

A Representative Asian Travel Plan

There are nine children in this Resource programme. Four children walk back and forth to school, twice daily. Two are accompanied by seeing brothers or sisters who attend the same school; only a slight adjustment in schedule was needed to effect this arrangement. Another walks with an older sister, who bids the blind child farewell and goes on her way to high school, calling for the youngster at the end of the day. The fourth near-by child walks alone! With sufficient “travel vision” to see traffic hazards, and some training from the Resource teacher at the beginning of the year, she now makes two full trips to school each day, sometimes alone, and sometimes in the company of classmates who happen to go in the same direction and at the same time.

In this Resource programme, there are other children who would ordinarily attend another elementary school, but who are best served in the Resource setting. One of these children is brought to school each day by her brother—she very much enjoys the daily ride on the back of the bicycle; still another is merely one of three children in the family, distributed at their respective schools by father on his motorcycle.

Three other children arrive each day by pedicab, bringing a lunch box, and after school are delivered to their homes by separate pedicab rides. In each case, the cost of the pedicabs is

borne by volunteer contributions, since it is the policy of the programme to support student transportation only when other sources cannot be found. Blindness has little to do with these individualised solutions to student travel problems.

The principles of such a combination plan are: flexibility, individual solutions to individual problems, good community interpretation, careful parent advisement, and the determination to keep the transportation as natural and as inexpensive as possible.

Usual transportation is often the best choice, and may be accomplished through extra training to avoid special hazards and to make safety procedures a habit. There is no transportation mode available to the seeing that cannot be used, in some cases, for blind children. Many children have some vision which can be used to advantage in their transportation programme. Families are often willing and able to be of help. It is proper to ask them to do as much for their visually handicapped child as they would for a seeing child in the same family. They are often prepared to do more.

Transportation planning is a responsibility of the special teacher of the visually handicapped. He asks for help and suggestions from the student's family, neighbours, and from transportation agents, volunteer agencies, and school district authorities. Pedicab drivers, older brothers or sisters and others who may help with transportation become an important part of the child's world. The specialist must explain to them necessary simple techniques of a seeing companion and try to develop objective attitudes so that there is consistency in the child's daily experiences.

INTEGRATION AT THE SECONDARY LEVEL

Academically capable students should be integrated at the secondary level as a matter of course. Students in the lower grades have been given intensive specialised instruction in all of the techniques and skills commonly associated with blindness. This primary level integration has helped to develop the following :

1. Independence in moving about in a known environment.
2. Full knowledge of required braille code(s).
3. Skill in using various special learning material and equipment; reader services.
4. Achievement in all subjects at a level equal to abilities and age.
5. Good adjustments to seeing classmates and the day-to-day requirements of regular school.

The ordinary *beginning* secondary curriculum lays the foundation for *advanced* secondary school work. Teachers at all levels use the same learning principles and methods of instruction, principles and methods of testing, and requirements for student participation in the learning process. Altogether, the beginning upper level of education can be characterised as "More of the same, but harder." That is, ideas are taught in more detail; student participation is expected in greater amount. The increased demands include: more reading; more writing; more intensive group discussion, planning, and actions; and more intensive inter-personal relationships with students and teachers.

The student is by this time an adolescent and his school experience is highly coloured by important social processes and physical changes. He re-evaluates his role in life and makes rapid progress in growing into adulthood. The transition to a secondary level or upper level school is usually easily made.

The secondary school is most often a separate building or campus, and the special teacher has an obligation to orient the student to the new physical facility. Any physical mobility problems must be explained to teachers and the school administration. This may be the blind student's first experience in moving about from room to room for various subjects each day. Different teachers may be assigned to each subject. If adjustment problems arise, it must be kept in mind that many sighted students also new to the programme are experiencing problems. In most cases the problems are an effect of new school adjustment, *not* blindness.

The duties of the special teachers change at the secondary level. As the student becomes more independent, specialist service becomes more indirect. The vision specialist fulfils the same broad responsibilities as in the past. He must do all necessary to assure a most normal school experience for his students. The change is in the *kind* of service, not in the *amount*. At the primary level, a specialist might spend 80 per cent of his time in actual instruction and 20 per cent on materials and related work; at the secondary level, he may only spend 40 per cent of his time in direct teaching, and the remaining time on indirect assistance and preparation of materials. Individual courses of study, availability of suitable materials for instruction, the size of the regular teaching staff, and the number of schools to be visited affect his division of work. More time is used for guidance, pre-vocational counselling, and liaison with community agencies in connection with extra curricular experiences. Though his duties vary, because of his preparation the vision specialist is able to work at all regular academic levels.

There is usually a variety of types of secondary schools used for integration. One blind student may be in a commercial school; another may be in an accelerated academic programme; a third may be in a vocational arts setting. No one vision specialist can be expected to have competency in all of the subjects required of all of the children. How can the specialist serve all blind children in such a varied programme? The answer is that the vision specialist learns to work *as a resource person in matters connected with the technical aspects of blindness*. For example: a blind student may have difficulties in a home economics class. A certified teacher of home economics fully understands the area curriculum, and has great experience in teaching basic concepts in the domestic science field. The vision specialist will ask: "Which concepts do you feel are important? How will you teach them to seeing children?" He can then modify materials, modify the experience, or substitute other experiences according to his judgement of the learning methods of the blind.

District education programmes are broadly administered by separate administrative units. Within a district there is usually one section for elementary education separated from another for secondary education. In most school programmes these two groups are discrete: each is busy with unique responsibilities. Administrators may have little chance to exchange ideas. Integrated programmes usually first serve elementary pupils. The specialist who gives public relations attention to the lower school division only may be surprised later at misunderstanding of the vision programme by those who have responsibility at the secondary level. A specialist must plan for expansion and make certain that, whenever possible, from the beginning, secondary level authorities also are acquainted with the goals of the vision programme. The special teacher might arrange a school visit

programme for a group of secondary teachers, principals or other administrators. Literature should be distributed. The periodic placement conferences for individual blind students might include secondary level personnel; they will contribute much and learn a great deal from assisting in such discussions.

Secondary-level experiences for blind children need to be practical and based on vocational opportunity. In the past, it was routine to place blind students in segregated residential programmes for this kind of education. It was thought that pre-vocational needs of the blind were extraordinary and could not be met in a regular local school. For many years it was assumed that blind adults were capable of only one or two narrowly selected vocational opportunities; that all school experiences and training should lead to skill in those areas; and that the blind should be given preferential status in those areas. More often now, educators consider the *individual* blind student.

Sighted students have benefitted from improved national planning. Now, individual choice from two or three vocational programmes may be made on the basis of both ability and interest. Academically talented students are expected to progress through the regular course so that they can be admitted to University; but the average student is given more than one option within pre-vocational and vocational curricula. Blind children can also profit from these improvements.

It is important that secondary level opportunity for the blind be based on individual ability. One Asian country offers residential school service for the primary grades and integrates all secondary students into academic programmes. This plan is a disservice to the student who is not academically talented. Another Asian programme integrates all possible students at the primary level. At the beginning of the secondary level, students are placed in residential or integrated schools on the basis of aptitudes and academic performance. This programme offers integrated experience for *all* children in the primary years and for *some* at the upper levels. It keeps the academically talented youngsters in an academic setting. It offers the vocationally inclined students a broad range of either integrated *or* residential pre-vocational experiences. Integration at the secondary level is appropriate for some; it is less appropriate for others.

OTHER SERVICE AREAS

The traditional duties of a regular teacher are only a beginning for the special teacher. The specialist has many more responsibilities added to his role because of his purpose of serving *all* the visually impaired children in a community. His work *outside* school is equally important as his work *inside* school. A significant area of service is to individual blind children who are not currently in school—to their families and community.

There are always many visually impaired children in a community who are not enrolled in school because they are too young or because they have special problems. Problems may be social or emotional; they may be caused by poor family attitudes which interfere with the natural development of the blind child. There are a great number of children who have other handicapping conditions in addition to blindness for whom the community programme is inadequate. There are some children who need basic teaching, even though they are past primary school age. There are still others who are so ill that they are unable to attend school.

These children, then, are *pre-schoolers*, *multi-impaired*, *over-aged beginners* or *home-bound*. A special programme helps these children as much as possible. There are good reasons, financial and humanitarian, for helping.

The student who often stays at home because of illness misses many things when he cannot attend school regularly. There may be added expense if he requires tutoring when he returns to class. He will also be more difficult to teach since much special work is needed when any child falls behind his classmates.

Multi-impaired children cannot be ignored. These children may be additionally physically impaired (crippled, deaf, etc.); mentally retarded; or brain damaged. These complicated children may have to wait a better day in Asia since in many countries services are not available even for all normal children.

A few of these children have a special problem. Sometimes blindness produces restrictive parent attitudes which cause normal blind children to act like they are mentally retarded, when in fact they are not! There are no simple tests that will help to select these children from among the truly retarded in order to help them in special ways. With special experiences and careful parent counselling, a very few of this group may suddenly show greater promise than what might have been suspected earlier.

There will always be a few children who are past the usual beginning age for learning special skills. Some blind children are not discovered for many years. Also, there are children who could once see but who later acquired blindness. Progressive diseases may be diagnosed, but many

children are the victims of accidents. Proper education must be introduced as quickly as possible after an over-aged beginner is discovered. These children should not be ignored just because they are "too big."

In the past, schools would often place these children, regardless of age, directly into primary classes. The physical differences have been obvious; the social and emotional differences are now being recognised. It is best to group such children into separate classes, usually in a residential school. However, if no established school accepts such children into *organised* classes suitable to their needs, the over-aged beginner may have to be taught by a teacher of the integrated programme. The main goal in any case is to prepare a child to enter into a regular school situation that is right for his age. A small amount of *individual tutoring* can sometimes prepare him for such a placement.

Scheduled service to each of these special groups can be planned as a temporary extra task of a special teacher in an integrated programme. As public interest and support are increased, each type of additional service can be re-defined and special workers can be assigned; the total programme can grow into a unified service involving many workers who provide help to *every* visually handicapped child, regardless of his unique needs.

Pre-School

Another important group to be served are those children below school enrolment age. Once an integrated programme is known, parents are more willing to ask for advice and service for their infants who have severe visual problems. There is much that the specialist can do for a child by working with his family to prepare the child for a formal school experience. Time invested in bringing about proper development for blind children pays big dividends.

Blindness often causes parents great distress. This distress, in turn, causes attitudes that lead to unnecessary help for the child, fear for his safety, and too many restrictions on what he is allowed to do. As a result, pre-schoolers are often observed to have inadequate discipline, to lack confidence, and to have poor eating or sleeping habits. These problems affect the way a child learns about his world. Problems usually maintain themselves in a cycle: the parents are concerned and misinformed about blindness and its effects; they therefore handle the child's problems poorly; the poor management frustrates the child and causes him to show even less suitable behaviour; this behaviour causes the parents even further distress and they become *more* anxious, *more* restrictive and tend *more* to intervene in the natural development of the child. This circle of attitudes occurs over and over again and leads to serious, unhappy consequences for the child and for the family. Someone must give facts, advice, and service to help parents and others change the way they manage the child.

Parents ask questions about their child's development, his education, and his medical condition. They want to know what the doctor meant when he used certain technical words to tell about the child's eye problem. They need to understand whether the condition will improve, and why glasses were or were not recommended. They want to know how to help the child to eat, how to help him to care for himself in his toilet needs and in grooming. They are uncertain about discipline. They often make the mistake of comparing the development of their blind child to the development of his brothers and sisters, forgetting that every child develops individually. Parents are curious about educational opportunity; they are anxious about the future. They often express deep concern over things far in the future but somehow of immediate distress: will the child go to upper school; can he marry; what work can he do.

The special teacher discusses with families: child behaviour and normal growth; training in social habits; and, especially, a child's natural need for independence. He gives suggestions about discipline, interprets the doctor's remarks and explains why certain recommendations were made; he explains the educational programmes that will be available for the child in the future and helps the family to plan activities which will prepare the child. The specialist arranges : any necessary follow-up medical services; special social experiences; and, especially, structured opportunity for play in groups. If transportation for any of these is a problem, the special teacher can help in this matter as well.

Visits to the families of pre-school children should be made as soon as a child comes to the attention of the programme. The specialist becomes an accepted helper. While maintaining a professional attitude he is still a friendly and warm person to whom the family can turn with any of their problems in connection with the child's growth. A dignified and professional relationship has great meaning and great emotional importance for the family. In many Asian programmes the teacher provides the continuity and the perspective which, for the first time, helps families to understand what blindness actually means to their child, what effects it may be having upon him in the present and what can be done about these matters so as to lead to a successful adult life.

There is a clear relationship between early life experiences and being ready for school. In Asia there are currently no specially organised pre-school services or special institutes for parents of blind children. Until such service is available, this important work with families has become the responsibility of teachers of integrated programmes.

DEVELOPING PROGRAMME SUPPORT WITHIN THE SCHOOL

The purposes and methods of integration must be explained to regular teachers, counsellors, school nurses, building principals, local and district supervisors, and administrative personnel. The job of each person must be understood; it is vital that each participant understand the general scheme for the blind child, why certain things must be done, and how objectives can be obtained. Successful integration can only develop when all concerned see the task as a partnership. What role does each person play? What attitudes are encountered? What can be done to develop real "team work"?

In acquainting the school staff with resource services the specialist needs to keep in mind certain common attitudes. In the beginning, most educators inexperienced in work with the blind are actually fearful about blindness and uncomfortable with blind people. One result of this discomfort is unnecessary sympathy for blind students. Experience with the blind and opportunities to work or play or learn together usually change those fearful attitudes to attitudes of respect. Educational films which may explain parts of the integrated project, and nearby places which might be used for observations of integrated blind children can be of help.

The Regular Classroom Teacher

The regular classroom teacher has a vital role to play in the integrated system. If she has never had a blind child in her class, she is naturally unsure of her ability to provide a good classroom environment. Teachers feel this way because they know that people are accustomed to "seeing" the world with their eyes. They assume that most learning must be accomplished in this way. They immediately question many things: "What can be used for teaching materials?" "How can a blind child follow daily activities; how can he learn in a regular classroom?" To avoid failure as teachers, they reject the idea of integration. The specialist must always understand that regular teacher anxiety is natural. He learns to accept this point of view for what it is and to go about the business of carefully developing regular teacher confidence. He discusses in advance such topics as the normal development of seeing children and the effects of blindness. Especially in the beginning, quantities of suitable supplementary instructional material and evidence of confidence and moral support usually help to bring the blind child/regular teacher relationship into perspective. Regular teachers welcome suggestions from the specialist. They are not unhappy to have the specialist observe their classroom teaching for both know there is much that can be learned in this way. Most often, once given technical information and materials, the classroom teacher begins to show interest. The interest leads to some experimentation. The experimentation leads to

a balance of successes and failures that are customary with any group of youngsters. Soon, the regular teacher becomes a strong supporter of the integrated programme. She begins to :

- a. Speak in favour of the idea to fellow teachers.
- b. Obtain special satisfactions in discovering aspects of the teaching procedure for a blind child that cause improvement in how she teaches all children.
- c. Show her growing confidence in the way she explains her point of view with administrators.
- d. Gain a sense of participating in "team teaching."
- e. Make good suggestions to the specialist about how to modify lessons or support the blind child during Itinerant or Resource contact periods.
- f. View the blind child as a *child* who is blind.

This attitude of acceptance of the blind child as an ordinary student who requires supplementary materials and limited supplementary instruction soon transfers to the seeing classmates. As this shift in understanding occurs, the most important influence on a blind child's total development and eventual adult potential has occurred! The first goal of successful integration has been accomplished.

The question always arises as to whether or not regular classroom teachers should learn braille. If a teacher shows interest in learning, her *curiosity* should be satisfied. But, it should be curiosity, not desperation or lack of materials, which motivates this interest. It is not necessary for a regular classroom teacher to learn braille if the specialist teacher is doing his job.

The School Principal

The School Principal may have strong feelings about blindness. He always has strong feelings of responsibility for the smooth operation of the total school programme. His problems in beginning a new programme must be considered.

In almost every case, the administrator is a former classroom teacher. He may feel burdened when he is asked to choose the teacher in whose class the blind child is to be integrated. He anticipates regular teacher resistance. He may be worried about incurring the anger of a regular teacher by insisting that she take a blind child. Administrators frequently overestimate the needs of a blind child for special teaching material and play equipment. These feelings gradually decrease. Understanding and acceptance of the integration concept grows in direct proportion to the amount of actual time spent in working with a blind child.

Another common worry of administrators is fear of too many special placements in one school. This worry is legitimate! Some programmes group blind children together, rather than placing them naturally according to school boundaries. A “natural” pattern of placement is the underlying strength of a true Itinerant service; children should attend the school which they would have attended were they *not* handicapped! Principals feel a greater responsibility for children from their own districts. Exceptions should be made with care.

There seems to be a relationship between successful programmes and the amount of time and energy given to develop regular teacher/administrator attitudes and knowledge. Some activities that can involve them are: helping to plan local screening or survey procedures; development of special programme budgets; and, attending special workshops on various aspects of the programme.

Some administrators like to go with their regular teachers to general orientation programmes so that they have a basic understanding of the methods, the materials and the procedures used in serving blind children in regular schools. Administrators must be given a chance to explain local conditions and special ideas or problems of their school or faculty. Their ideas often are of great help in making the final programme plans. Administrators must be consulted and should assist in developing national administrative policy.

Using General or “Area” Supervisors

Most large school districts employ experienced educators as “area” or speciality supervisors (i.e., arts and crafts, language, music, geography). These persons have broad background, but special competencies in particular fields. Others are chosen for their great experience in a particular grade or age-level, such as Primary Supervisors or Intermediate Supervisors. Some work in Supervisory Teams; others work alone, moving from school to school within a geographic or political boundary.

These people are very rich in ideas, suggestions for materials, techniques, and activity modification. Yet, they are often unaware of their own potential in helping vision programmes because of their lack of contact with and/or limited knowledge of blind children. The area of Art and Crafts is a good example. These specialists are very skilful in suggesting experiences for *all* children in handling different textiles or other craft materials, but they often fail to see how their speciality has much to contribute to the school plan for a child who does not see.

What can be done to involve these people whose talents must be used in providing a full, rich educational experience? School visits should always be encouraged. Special workshops may be planned. Area supervisors might

be invited to assist a Teacher Preparation Centre to prepare special teaching manuals or course outlines. In some cases, they are invited to be guest lecturers in Training Programmes. Once these people are interested, they find many ways to apply *their* special skills for the blind.

Other Officials

General district administrators, finance and personnel officers are individuals with whom the specialist has only incidental contacts at school staff-meetings, or while on errands in the local school bureau. This group needs to understand the specific ways in which their co-operation, their encouragement and their direct action affect the success of a programme. Special enrolment problems, financial assistance procedures, and obtaining commercially-made instructional materials or raw materials for teacher-made devices often need their approval or assistance. Their general interest should be encouraged in public relations projects, and district survey techniques. They may be invited to visit a regular class when the vision specialist calls on a blind child and his teacher. No programme will grow and flourish without the support and co-operation of these important people.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Vocational guidance is everyone's responsibility. It is an accumulation of information, evaluation and support which tells a child all the things he can do and motivates him to make the important decision about what he wants to do. Vocational guidance should be structured. It should be planned as a routine activity and should accommodate blind, as well as seeing students. It is *not* something which can be left to chance! The student has limited understanding of the growing range of career opportunities and the skills they require. He lacks information about himself, and his aptitudes, and his interests in relation to local technology.

There are very few specially trained guidance workers in Asia. Many different people with varied experience, varied preparation and varied positions of responsibility take on this task. In one country, a school psychologist is asked to fill this job; in another, a residential school principal assumes the task; and in a third, a trained rehabilitation counsellor organises service within a government body. It would be wrong to say that each of these people should *not* be concerned with guidance, for each has a vital role to play.

In addition to being structured, guidance must be individualised—both in what kind and in how much. For a few, vocational choice is easy; for the majority, it is a prolonged process directly influenced by day-to-day activities, day-to-day contacts and day-to-day shifts in the changing self-concept of the child.

Who are the people in the child's environment who have the greatest opportunity for helping a child to make a career decision?

1. Parents

Parents' attitudes about vocational opportunities for their blind child are important. Parent attitudes affect the child's thoughts about what he might be able to do. Any structured guidance programme for the blind must help parents to understand the gradual increase in the range of vocations available to blind children. Parents need to have the privilege of observing and becoming acquainted with efficient blind adults. They must have good advice and explanations of their child's potential, and how he might become a useful, contented worker in the community.

2. Special Teacher of the Visually Handicapped

The special teacher is an important guidance worker. He should be able to describe a student's capabilities and to suggest work possibilities which might call for known aptitudes. The special teacher should be ready to make suggestions about guest lecturers who might stimulate new

career ideas. (A competent braille stenographer or typist might be invited to give a talk before a class in which a blind child is integrated. The stenographer could describe her work and special problems resulting from her blindness, and tell about how she solves these problems so that she competes with seeing employees.) A special teacher may assist in the planning of a Career Day activity for a regular sighted school where blind children are served.

The specialist should be a resource to the regular teacher, to the school administration, and to the family in providing literature to describe a range of possible occupations for the blind. He may want to tell parents or staff some details about special techniques which allow a blind child to fulfil a task ordinarily considered exclusively as a job for seeing persons. The specialist remembers the personality, attitude, and mobility factors which are known to affect the success of blind workers. He asks all school personnel having contact with the blind child to agree upon acceptable standards for such qualities as independence, punctuality, good grooming, independent travel, and “getting along” with seeing people.

3. Regular Classroom Teacher

This person spends more time with the blind child than any other member of the school staff. The amount of time spent is second only to that spent by the parents of a child. As a result, the regular teacher sets “attitudes” and has a great opportunity to stimulate vocational *interest*. Regular classroom teachers need to realise the hazards of premature vocational decisions—or worse—of failure to give *any* attention to such an important matter. This is true for all children, blind and seeing alike. A regular classroom teacher is knowledgeable about the general school curriculum. She, together with the specialist teacher, can be expected to know or “sense” when it might be helpful to depart from the syllabus for an especially useful activity, assignment, or experience which can be arranged for the whole class. Field trips, excursions to industries, a tour of a business, an invitation from the father of one of the children in the class to inspect a particular type of manufacturing process, all contribute to what we call “guidance.”

4. School Guidance Counsellor

Specialists in guidance arrange school-wide programmes. They serve as a resource to all other staff members. They do not perform “guidance” alone. They structure the programme in which many others play important parts.

Group and individual tests of intelligence, aptitude and vocational preference are given by the counsellor. Conferences are scheduled with teachers, parents, and the students themselves. The same services are appro-

prate for an integrated blind student. The special teacher provides technical information on blindness and test procedures. Special knowledge of vocational opportunity or requirements is shared with the guidance specialist who is best trained to give effective formal guidance service.

5. Rehabilitation Workers

A Rehabilitation worker may be a resource to regular teachers and school guidance personnel. He may be invited to provide individual or group counselling, interviews, or actual "Career Opportunity" courses to young people in the upper levels.

COMMUNITY SUPPORT

Public relations work does not stop at the school boundaries. A successful programme is partly dependent upon the good will and understanding of a community. Various parent, business, service, religious, and civic groups may be looking for special projects or continuing ways in which they can serve. They must first know about the programme, the purposes and principles of integration, and the ways in which they can be of help. Community support comes through interest, and there are several ways in which that interest can be developed.

Public Information Services

Most government education bodies employ a full-time Public Relations, or Public Education staff. They are of some help in general planning, and, especially, in the use of mass media for publicising national policy matters. Their relationships with various local groups are slight, however.

In the local school district, the specialist teacher most often works almost singly to acquaint the community with his programme. He must be prepared to accept public speaking invitations. Many groups would be interested in having the specialist describe the integrated programme and its goals. Speeches should be reasonable in length, well planned, and simple in concept. They can be enriched with visual aids such as teaching materials or projected slides showing children in social and school situations. Blind children may be invited to demonstrate certain learning activities.

Schools may hold an "open house" on their own or in connection with a school- or district-wide Education Information project. If so, a Resource Room with actual learning aids and appliances, samples of children's work, etc., are popular items on a school tour.

Other opportunities for telling about the programme are available through mass media. Television, radio and newspapers can each be used to good advantage. Television has been used with success to show children in action, to announce national or international conferences, and to show senior Government Officials attending programmes or visiting schools. Good relations should be maintained with television workers so that such special activities may be given their full share of coverage. Television programmes often deal with abstract ideas which are presented in extremely simple and broadly visual ways. Usually, only one or two significant ideas are given, such as "Blind children can enrol in public school with seeing friends," or "Reading braille is not 'magic.'"

Newspapers and radios vary in their reporting interest in integrated programmes, but it is a help to be known to these two important communication media. Because of lower cost of actual production of news release

material, ideas can be presented in more detail and subordinate ideas can be included to support or expand the principal theme. Radio interviews are most often recorded and it is not inappropriate to ask for an opportunity to listen first—or with newspaper reports, to see copy in advance—to make sure that no serious errors have been made.

Blindness is a very appealing subject to mass media. Taking advantage of this, some agencies for the blind arrange *too much* publicity. It is more discrete to be selective in both the kind and amount of public information released. It is possible for the readers of one paper, or audience of one television or radio station, to become bored and generally disinterested in the subject of blindness simply because it is presented in a disproportionate, unending thrust upon the public. There is a difference between good public information and common publicity.

Volunteer Services

Many people have discovered the personal satisfactions in volunteering services for blind children. Few areas of public service offer so much reward, and even fewer areas offer such a variety of service activities. Volunteers may: relieve a teacher of mechanical tasks so that his time is available for more specialised work; give certain kinds of service which otherwise would be too expensive; or give opportunities to the blind children for more and different social experiences.

Volunteer work varies in the amount of time, preparation, and skill required. Some activities are simple; some are complex. Some service is individual; other service is better performed by a group. Volunteer activities should *always* be chosen on the basis of discussion with and recommendations of special teachers or other professional workers. The teacher should be able to suggest some of the following:

1. Experience Enrichment

There are never enough people to organise and provide all the activities and experiences that are helpful to blind youngsters. Reading stories aloud in recreation periods, taking walks after school, going to the beach for a picnic, or touring a neighbourhood industry or park are some examples of worthwhile enrichment experience provided by volunteers. These activities are suitable for either individuals or groups, and ordinarily require no special skills.

2. Braille Writing

There is always a need for assistance in preparing braille texts and supplementary reading material. Stories, poems, graphs, charts, and tables, as well as regular school books are continually in demand. Although the volunteer must learn to write the necessary braille code and must work with

great accuracy in braille usage, it is an activity that is very satisfying to many individuals. It is often work that can be done in the quiet of one's home and at hours suited to the volunteer's personal schedule. This activity is also very suitable for groups. Braille books may well require: a braillist; a proof reader; another to collate; others to bind; and still others to arrange the distribution of the materials.

3. *Reader Service for the Blind*

At certain school levels, blind children can use the help of a person who reads directly from assigned material. It is faster than braille reading. If not overdone, it allows the blind child to maintain the study schedule of his seeing classmates. It is work which must usually be done during school or regular study hours. Some people enjoy the direct contact with the children.

4. *Recording for the Blind*

Some materials are needed for future reference; others are needed at once and for review later. It is helpful to have selected tape recordings of texts and general references for older blind children. This basically serves the same purpose as actual direct reader service, but may sometimes be easier because the recorder can record when convenient, and the user can replay according to his needs.

5. *Fund Raising*

Some volunteers prefer the varied responsibilities of modest fund raising projects. They make an important contribution to individual programmes. Direct financial support, proceeds of raffles and sales of foodstuffs or seasonal items are usual activities. Funds may be used for transportation costs and for enrichment materials. Fund raising involves such a variety of talents that almost everyone can find *some* way to be of personal service.

6. *Educational Material Collection and Preparation*

Some groups are resourceful in locating useful materials and organising them into collections of local-made teaching equipment. Such things as buttons, wooden thread-spools, and fabric samples are easy to locate in some places but difficult in others. The volunteer is sometimes able to devote the time and energy needed to find such useful items. Some groups can make duplicates of teacher planned materials such as reading readiness books, counting boards, and cork maps.

7. *Tutoring in a Foreign Language*

Providing conversational experience in a second language is a satisfying and challenging activity which requires some patience and skill but no special information about the blind.

Organisation

Volunteers need professional help. They are *not* trained for teaching the blind. To succeed, a volunteer programme must be professionally organised, professionally co-ordinated, and professionally supervised as frequently as necessary. It is often the responsibility of the teacher of the blind to organise, co-ordinate, and supervise volunteer programmes. Although this may require some extra time from him, volunteers relieve him of many tasks that would take even more time.

The specialist must know the skills needed and other requirements for each service. He must know of the abilities and interests of each volunteer. He must fit the two together.

1. *Match the skills required with the person's talents.*

Readers and recorders should have pleasant voices, good diction, and sufficient education to read the material with ease and confidence. Seeing companions should have proper techniques for helping the blind to travel. The specialist should pick the person for the job, and the job for the person.

2. *Match the size of the job to interest and time available.*

Experience activities may require only an occasional afternoon. Book production may require several days. Material collection or preparation can be a continuing process. The specialist suggests activities that fit the volunteer's available time.

3. *Recruit only the number needed for a given activity.*

Volunteers are easily discouraged if satisfying assignments are not available. In a group project, there needs to be something for everyone to do. Volunteers want to feel they are helping; when there is not enough work for everyone, someone drops out of the programme.

A well-organised volunteer programme is of great help to the blind children it serves, to the specialist and regular teachers who serve them, and to the community which benefits from the children who are educated. The specialist should devote some attention to developing interest and guiding abilities toward this satisfying work.

GUIDING THE PROGRAMME

Special teachers often work in professional isolation. This is especially true of teachers of the blind in integrated programmes because they are few and because they may move from building to building rather than being in one place. Such a teacher has no one he can talk with about his professional problems. He is often the only special educator in an entire school system.

When a specialist works alone in this way he needs someone to help him—someone to turn to for guidance or support. *Someone must supervise special programmes.* He may be a supervisor of several different classes or groups of exceptional children in a very large community. Most often, he is a regional or national level supervisor of teachers of the visually handicapped alone. Local level education supervisors seldom have the necessary training or experience to help the vision specialist. The specialist needs a Field Supervisor who can help him :

1. Maintain confidence in value judgements.
2. Maintain perspective about curricular adjustments.
3. Use self-evaluation techniques.
4. Solve technical problems in teaching a blind child.
5. Solve transportation problems.
6. Suggest solutions to administrative problems.
7. Suggest evaluation procedures on student performances.
8. Organise and co-ordinate a record keeping system.
9. Organise and co-ordinate a special programme budget.
10. Co-ordinate a classroom placement process.
11. Find ways to communicate with others with similar problems.
12. Suggest community or regional resources.

The supervisor does not replace the teacher or do his work for him in any way. Because of his maturity, teaching experience with blind children, and administrative knowledge, he has a most objective point of view. He is skilled in defining problems and in proposing solutions. A good supervisor gives confidence and moral support. He stays well informed and can tell others about current literature, new methods of teaching and new aids and appliances which might be of help to the special teacher and his blind students. He sponsors workshops or regional meetings among special teachers. He co-ordinates the activities of volunteer groups, private agencies for the blind, braille production units, and other support resources so that comprehensive, co-ordinated services are maintained.

Supervision is not accomplished from an office. A good supervisor arranges his schedule to allow as much school visitation and field consultation as possible; funds must be available to him for this important work. Good supervision involves two-way communication. It is as important for a supervisor to be receptive to ideas and problems communicated by the people whom he supervises as it is for him to be competent in communicating to them.

The specialist needs an objective review of his work and his programme. He needs to know how well his services are meeting the needs of the blind students. He may also want to know about attitudes of regular classroom teachers or school administrators. He may want to know something of parent reactions. Although a skilled teacher remains "attuned" to these various forces, a structured inquiry will be of great help.

It is a mistake to consider the number of children enrolled and the number of new enrolments presented as criteria of successful specialist performance. The most valid measures of an adequate programme are :

1. The extent to which children are being effectively integrated.
2. The acceptance of the blind children by family, school, and community.
3. Indications that most children are meeting most of their needs, and thereby having typical, competitive, regular education experiences.

A supervisor can co-ordinate the efforts of all his teachers in directing an Attitude Survey, using one or more of the following techniques :

A comprehensive programme-wide survey —

One national Attitude Survey has been done in Asia.* The survey included attitudes of representative participants among school administrators, regular classroom teachers with whom blind children were placed, parents of blind children in the integrated programmes, and the special teacher himself. Careful, unbiased choice of participants is necessary. A good questionnaire will produce usable information.

District-wide survey —

Teachers may want to produce a similar, though more modest district-wide survey in one school district. Development of a district-level survey would parallel a Central Government or Field Supervisor directed nation-wide effort. These surveys should not be done too frequently, since participants do not like to be interrupted with such requests on any regular basis.

* For further information, readers should consult: Mao, Chang, and Bourgeault, *Attitude Survey, Taiwan Integrated Project*, (Tainan, July, 1968).

Good co-operation is achieved if the regular teacher or other participant knows how he will be helped by the results. Careful construction of the survey and efficient use of the participant's time will make him more willing in the future. A specialist may prepare a two- or three-page clearly worded questionnaire which asks the regular classroom teacher how the specialist can be of even greater help. People are happy to be asked to make such constructive comments, and an amazing amount of information can be deduced from knowing their point of view about such basic things as: attitudes towards blind students in their rooms; understanding how the specialist and regular teacher share responsibilities; understanding the goals of the total education service for a blind child; and, understanding the basic purpose of a course in relation to the total curriculum and the special needs of the blind student.

School-wide surveys —

Some specialists ask regular teachers to report on how seeing children benefit in having a blind classmate, or ask for brief remarks on how a blind student's presence affects ordinary teaching methods. This kind of communication with regular teachers is important. The results of such an informal survey may be communicated to the Field Supervisor, where they can be co-ordinated with other such informal reports from other teachers to serve as a continuing evaluation technique.

The Field Supervisor interprets the local programme to higher authorities. He is the nearly individual to whom national-level administrators turn with their questions about the programme. He either makes policy or policy recommendations. He is involved in national planning.

National Planning

National, regional, and local agencies must plan together in order to agree on policies and solve problems through combined efforts. This is best accomplished through groups which meet at frequent intervals to consider programme limits, programme objectives, and the inter-relationship between separate agencies and departments.

It is frustrating to the educator to give a student vocational training, and later discover that no work or further vocational training is available. It is frustrating to a primary student to work earnestly to develop competence and skill in the lower school and then discover that altogether different skills are required in the next level of education. These frustrations to teacher and pupil, and the tragic waste of energy and human resources, can be reduced by inter-agency, inter-departmental, and inter-Ministerial planning. In such a co-operative approach, a *total* service plan can be put into action.

All agencies and programmes need a regular opportunity to consider administrative decisions of mutual concern. Policy decisions which increase chance for success are more easily made when all other related efforts are understood. Separate agency and group goals can only be achieved through communication regarding procedures, means, resources and problem areas.

Good communication and inter-agency planning are essential. Some problems can only be solved if many people and programmes combine efforts; agencies and programmes usually serve best when they must define or re-define their responsibilities from time to time. Having each programme carefully explain what it does, how much it does, and for whom, places the service in perspective. Wasteful duplications are detected; lack of certain service is noted; ideas that require experimentation or research are discussed. From these details, basic policy may be developed.

Some issues in which co-operating groups find national or regional planning helpful are: basic programme philosophy; school placement criteria and procedures; educational programme structure; textbook production; pre-vocational education; vocational training; and higher education. Legislative proposals, supervision of programmes, public information, fund raising, teacher preparation, and using allied services are also important and proper matters for inter-agency discussion.

Such issues affect all levels of educational and rehabilitative activity. Teachers, rehabilitation workers, administrators, publishers, budget personnel, technicians, etc., must each understand the total national objective in order to do their jobs well.

Communication needs to be among all with similar tasks, and between those with related tasks. The group must be convened by some authority. One technique is to organise an *Implementation Committee*. This group of people with special areas of authority can consider methods and establish policy on a specific project or a series of related projects. Such committees can be national or regional, with local counter-part groups. They need to involve top-level policy makers as well as those with suitable technical information about the project at hand.

Liaison Officers provide communication through periodic meetings with special teachers and others. Such a person serves as a "clearing house" for teacher problems. He is an intermediary. Neither policy nor problem solving is within his actual jurisdiction. As a result, this worker alone would be only partially helpful. To be effective, direct communication with an inter-Ministerial Committee must be guaranteed a liaison officer.

An Inter-Ministerial Working Committee: A senior Ministry official serves as chairman, calling together chief supervisors of Education, Health and Welfare or Social Services. Representatives of agencies for the blind,

field supervisors, and selected teacher preparation personnel are also included. Small sized groups seem more efficient than large ones. Such a committee would have :

1. Sufficient administrative power to bring about desired policy changes.
2. Sufficient technical power to make sound decisions possible.
3. Some system to increase representation as needed in order to consider unusual areas or problems. (Short-term invitations can be extended to necessary guests.)
4. Regular meeting dates at periodic intervals, rather than only when special problems arise. Written summaries of the meeting should be issued whenever possible.

National Planning makes integration possible. It defines the task and the responsibilities of those who bring the service into being. Those who set out to find blind children and to effectively serve them, those who accept the blind children and make possible a normal school experience for them, those in the community who support the programme, and those who guide them, bring new hope to blind children in Asia. As partners in a comprehensive programme, they demonstrate their confidence that the blind will occupy their rightful place as contributors to, rather than wards of, a society.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

Excerpts from

**LOCATING, IDENTIFYING
AND EVALUATING BLIND
CHILDREN FOR EDUCATIONAL
PROGRAMMES***

By

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Locating and evaluating blind children [ideally] requires a dedicated and full-time staff, requires technical information on the part of that staff, and—to be truly successful—requires central authority.

Regardless of who they are, what kind of training experience do those people [surveyors] need? Minimal technical information is essential and should consist of the following:

1. basic knowledge of child growth and development,
2. information on those behavioural deviations resulting from the distortions in the cognitive processes of blind children,
3. detailed information and knowledge of the general cultural patterns of the area,
4. appreciation of the local cultural perceptions of blindness,
5. minimal information about the anatomy and physiology of the eye,
6. general orientation to other kinds of handicapping conditions,
7. specific knowledge of existing regulations and other registry processes, and
8. wide knowledge of local and national resources for medical care, education, and rehabilitation services.

It has become a pattern in the newly-established integrated programmes to ask teachers-in-preparation to locate blind children, since their training automatically includes such technical information in the various minimum courses required. For training case finders, alone, such technical information could easily be condensed into specialised in-service training... .

* Excerpts reprinted from Conference Proceedings of : *The Third Asian Conference on Work for the Blind*, AFOB, (Kuala Lumpur, 1968). pp. 59-74.

In the [Taiwan] teacher-training curriculum, one complete special course was included which was devoted exclusively to imparting the necessary background, knowledge, and skills needed for independent area surveys. This coursework consisted of a series of lectures on such as: a comprehensive evaluation of all previously used techniques of survey and strengths and weaknesses found in these programmes; lists and explanations of the functions of potential resource assistance and existing information-gathering agencies available in our country; the inherent disadvantages in ophthalmologist's records, and the inaccessibility and confidentiality of hospital records; the social and political structure of various communities; methods of using mass communication media, with visiting journalists aiding in explaining techniques of condensing and graphically dramatising critical issues; and how to evaluate the functional vision of those children located.

... Growing out of the coursework, but as an integral part of the course, discussions were held in which the students with project direction determined that special committees were needed... .

The function of the *Planning Group* was to detail and distribute work to the other groups. In this connection, one member of the Planning Group met with the *Forms Designing Group* to discuss with them the forms which would be necessary. This second group designed forms which could detail information: a social case history of the child and his family attitude and circumstances as related in a home visit; a report of the number of school visits, classrooms addressed and children contacted; a referral form for later use by a classroom teacher or principal when specifics on a child's location could not be obtained at the time of the school visit; classification form on which a tentative placement or referral plan was proposed; and a weekly report, primarily to keep the project centre aware of progress.

The *Literature Writing Group* was primarily responsible for public information services and wrote a brochure describing the aims of the Project, the purpose of integrated education, and some general suggestions on helping blind students. This group composed a standard speech for use with school staffs to explain the philosophy of the Project, services to blind children, and ways in which teachers could be of help. They were responsible for a programme philosophy statement emphasising the continuity between the residential and integrated programmes. And they developed guide-line literature for use in home visits as a convenient reference for the surveyor in talking to parents about such things as common anxieties of parents of blind children, etc.

The *Assessment Material Group* was assigned the task of completing individual kits of materials (vision screening tools such as common objects and samples of various print sizes) for use in home and school visits.

The Planning Group further discussed with the group as a whole such items as step-by-step procedure, available community resources, and advanced preparations for making school and home visits.

At the conclusion of the committee meetings, each individual was assigned the task of collating maps and lists of his home district showing the locations of schools, available transportation, number of schools, names of schools, number of classes,

names of principals, directors of sections of elementary education and superintendents, and any agencies which would be possible resources for the survey. All this material was obtained through local district governments.

Each survey schedule was planned individually in advance and was confirmed during a conference with the Project Staff. The Provincial Governor then arranged for an official letter to be sent to each School Bureau, Civil Bureau (in charge of population information), and Health Bureau. It announced the project purpose, the Governor's endorsement, and his request for full co-operation. Each Bureau wrote an official district letter as a follow-up to its branch or local agency and schools—this follow-up letter was generally outlined in advance by the vision specialist in order to ensure accurate interpretation at the school principal level. Individual calling cards were printed to identify students as Project workers. These were for professional introductions and follow-up purposes.

Trial Survey:

In an attempt to identify the strengths and weaknesses of survey techniques and to establish confidence in the trainees, a trial survey was scheduled. An area was chosen as close to the training centre as was practical, and all possible was done to emulate the typical conditions which would later exist for each separate trainee.

... The students needed to experiment with transportation plans and scheduling. They were asked to work in some cases separately and in other cases as teams. Some questions needed to be answered. a) What were the best, simple ways of describing or defining those children whom we sought? Obviously, the word "blind" or "blindness" was too vague and produced many false-positive referrals. b) Which words were best used to explain our programme to variously aged children? c) Which agencies, if any, produced maximum information, and widest coverage of the population with the smallest investment of time? d) Was it possible to reconcile the classic criteria of a screening or survey process in our efforts? (i.e. speed, accuracy, minimum over-and under-referrals, and low cost.)

Evaluation of Trial Survey:

On the basis of the initial interviews and experimentation, plus staff observation of school classroom presentations, the trial survey experiences were carefully evaluated. Through group discussion, decisions were made as to which agencies, centres, or authorities, tended to produce the most accurate and useful information; techniques of classroom presentation were revised; approaches were selected which seemed most economical of time and finance.

Adopted Pattern:

We found that the most practical single resource for finding blind children was direct contact with elementary-aged students. This is reasonable in our country because 97 per cent of all eligible elementary-aged pupils are in fact enrolled and regularly attending a school within walking distance of their homes.

We also discovered that certain preliminary project staff activities paid big dividends in increasing co-operation at the local level. The following steps were most helpful:

1. The Project staff, together with trainee-surveyor, visited the local School Superintendent and Director of Elementary Education of each respective district.
2. The Project followed up the Governor's request for co-operation by sending an official letter to each school. These letters explained more details about the procedures to be used during the survey. The letter included the name of the survey worker, the proposed (tentative) survey dates, general purpose, and what the school might do to help.
3. Routine principal's meetings were attended where possible, but special meetings, some by combining districts if convenient, were held in order to interpret a) the survey, and b) the great dependence of our Projects' future success on supportive building administrators. Trainee-surveyors were introduced at such meetings and asked to share in our staff presentations, thus enhancing their status when they ultimately called upon each school.
4. Schools were visited, one by one. The usual protocol required a call at the principal's office. The programme then consisted of assembling all teachers for a brief introduction, distribution of project literature, answering any questions about methods, purposes, and objectives of the school surveys, and especially how teachers could assist in following up on cases referred but where exact names and addresses were vague.
5. Individual classes were visited, [by the surveyor himself]. On the basis of our experience, ... this was a most critical element of our survey system. ... in every case where a deviation from personalised face-to-face contact was made, survey results fell below expectations—leading us to believe that trained specialists alone are equipped to present material and interpret responses of children.

The individual class presentations were written in such a manner that they could be concluded within approximately three to four minutes ... visually handicapped children were [then] referred by their siblings or neighbours. If exact locations were available, follow-up visits were scheduled. In those cases where blindness was reported but the specifics of name or address were vague, the regular classroom teacher was asked to pursue the matter by obtaining further information through the referring child or his parents.

6. Because of the limits of time and money, and in view of the large number of children who needed to be surveyed in a brief period of time, a difficult but necessary decision was made. Based on the rationale that a) first and second graders tend to produce greater over-referrals and b) the strong probability that the report of any first or second grader would be matched by more pointed information from a sibling or neighbour in the same school in grades three through six, all first and second grade classroom interviews were discontinued after the first week. There is no way to validate our assumption, but our successful case findings were sufficiently high and above our expectations so that we tend to have confidence in this judgment.
7. ... in no case was less than 95 per cent of the total enrolled school population of those districts surveyed exposed to our survey tactics. Even in the remaining 5 per cent of the population—schools so remote [as to be inac-

cessible]—letters were written asking for school self-surveys in the hope that any obvious problems could be brought into a service area if the local school felt that it was warranted.

8. After the blind children were referred, the surveyor had to visit the blind child's home in order to interpret the project to the parents, and to acquire information for placement such as home circumstance, parents' attitude towards the blind child, the child's visual acuity, his general health, overall abilities, placement consideration, transportation arrangements, child's enthusiasm about attending school, and which kind of materials were suitable to him. Special education is permissive, not mandatory, in Taiwan. It was necessary not only to make judgements as to the proper schooling for a child, but to convince the parents that such schooling was desirable.
9. Surveyors inevitably encounter unexpected problems which they need to bring to their supervisor. [But] "supervision" does not express the moral support and close feelings of mutual interest and determination which, for some, are much more important than technical direction. ... We consistently found that teams of two or more worked better than individuals. The interaction between people while working on so unusual a task seemed important. [When] surveyors moved alone into remote areas, their basic need for "supervision" proportionately increased. The Project staff made a point of visiting every surveyor in the field; of communicating with each; of observing, and directing and supporting. We found "supervision" was essential for success.

Conclusions:

1. In spite of government disinterest or private agency apathy there are blind children by the thousands in Asia who remain unknown and unserved.
2. Case finding cannot be dependent upon rules, regulations, or registration procedures which are dependent upon the parents, since in our cultures the parents do not come forth with such information or requests for educational service.
3. Teachers—frequently teachers-in-training—have inherited the task of locating such children, ...
4. Case finding [should] become a full-time responsibility of agencies whose staffs are properly trained for such activities.
5. Such activities tend to be more successful when there is an element of centralised authority.
6. When case finding techniques are devised for a particular country they must take into consideration every conceivable resource, but the ultimate plan must be economic of time and money.
7. We must do something to avoid a chronic professional problem of arriving at understanding "among ourselves" about a functional definition of blindness, and learn how to communicate with the public about our goals.
8. Case finding must be geared to established programmes or those which are emerging, and such programmes can rarely exceed the general level or scope of nation-wide educational planning.

9. Those who are chosen to locate and assess children can be comprehensively and quickly trained.
10. Asking otherwise preoccupied agencies to accept this additional task is fruitless.
11. When organised case finding is finally under way, certain factors seem evident:
 - a) that the participants should have a feeling of having shared in the realistic development of the techniques to be used.
 - b) that various audiences and groups will be addressed and the interpretive information must be geared to their levels of understanding.
 - c) that helpful literature can sometimes serve a purpose in re-inforcing information originally presented orally,
 - d) that intensive planning based on intimate knowledge of transportation accessibility of communities and centres, etc., be taken into consideration.
 - e) that if schools or other agencies are involved, every effort must be made to help the people truly realise that the blind children are *their* children and that resulting services will be *their* services, and that service deficiencies will be *their* deficiencies.
12. It is evident that the higher the level of original endorsement the greater the co-operation at local level.
13. With any developing survey procedure a trial is recommended; an evaluation should be made and necessary modifications incorporated.
14. Case finding activities tend to be more effective when done by groups or small teams (even a team of two) rather than individually to help counteract the feeling of isolation which comes from this unusual pursuit.
15. Surveys, if they must be periodical rather than continuing, should be done in intensive periods of time in order to generate the greatest amount of community and staff enthusiasm.
16. Inaccessibility is a barely justifiable reason for curtailing certain case finding procedures, and responsible agencies should always remember that the children in need are "there."
17. Surveyors must be competent in their ability to make initial judgements of children, such judgement being converted into appropriate agency action at the earliest possible time.
18. In many areas where education of the blind is still not recognised as a necessary function of government or private agencies, and because public understanding toward the vocational potential for the adult blind is still grossly distorted, the case finder has a responsibility not only to find cases but to "sell" the concept of desirable childhood experiences which include both social and academic processes.
19. When individuals or groups of individuals are asked to locate blind children, they need a strong feeling of guidance, direction, and moral support from those who co-ordinate their work. Communication is a vital link in sustaining the supervisory function; the more frequent the direct communication, the more successful the supervisory function.

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE EYE EXAMINATION REPORT FORM

This example of a suitable form for an Eye Report for Children with Visual Problems is, with only minor adjustment, a replica of the recommended form sponsored in America by the National Society for Prevention of Blindness. Certain Asian countries are currently using such a modification. Wide use of this or a similar Report Form will help to make possible the exchange of accurate information on eye conditions, and may in the future provide useful classification data for national or regional purposes.

CONFIDENTIAL

EYE REPORT FOR CHILDREN WITH VISUAL PROBLEMS

NAME OF PUPIL _____ SEX _____ RACE _____
(Type or print) (First) (Middle) (Last)
ADDRESS _____ DATE OF BIRTH _____
(No. and street) (City or town) (State) (Month) (Day) (Year)
SCHOOL _____ LEVEL _____ ADDRESS _____

I. HISTORY

- A. Probable age at onset of vision impairment. Right eye (O.D.) _____ Left eye (O.S.) _____
B. Severe ocular infections, injuries, operations, if any, with age at time of occurrence _____
C. Has pupil's ocular condition occurred in any blood relative(s)? _____ If so, what relationship(s)? _____

II. MEASUREMENTS (See back of form for preferred notation for recording visual acuity and table of approximate equivalents.)

- A. VISUAL ACUITY
- | | DISTANT VISION | | | NEAR VISION | | | PRESCRIPTION | | |
|------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|--------------|-------|-------|
| | Without correction | With best correction* | With low vision aid | Without correction | With best correction* | With low vision aid | Sph. | Cyl. | Axis |
| Right eye (O.D.) | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| Left eye (O.S.) | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| Both eyes (O.U.) | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
- B. If glasses are to be worn, were safety lenses prescribed in: Plastic _____ Tempered glass _____ *with ordinary lenses
C. If low vision aid is prescribed, specify type and recommendations for use. _____
D. FIELD OF VISION: Is there a limitation? _____ If so, record results of test on chart on back of form.
What is the widest diameter (in degrees) of remaining visual field? O.D. _____ O.S. _____
E. Is there impaired colour perception? _____ If so, what colour(s)? _____

III. CAUSE OF BLINDNESS OR VISION IMPAIRMENT

- A. Present ocular condition(s) responsible for vision impairment. (If more than one, specify all but underline the one which probably first caused severe vision impairment.) O.D. _____ O.S. _____
B. Preceding ocular condition, if any, which led to present condition, or the underlined condition, specified in A. O.D. _____ O.S. _____
C. Etiology (underlying cause) of ocular condition primarily responsible for vision impairment. e.g., specific disease, injury, poisoning, heredity or other prenatal influence.) O.D. _____ O.S. _____
D. If etiology is injury or poisoning, indicate circumstances and kind of object or poison involved. _____

IV. PROGNOSIS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

- A. Is pupil's vision impairment considered to be: Stable _____ Deteriorating _____ Capable of improvement _____ Uncertain _____
B. What treatment is recommended, if any? _____
C. When is re-examination recommended? _____
D. Glasses: Not needed _____ To be worn constantly _____ For close work only _____ Other (specify) _____
E. Lighting requirements: Average _____ Better than average _____ Less than average _____
F. Use of eyes: Unlimited _____ Limited, as follows: _____
G. Physical activity: Unrestricted _____ Restricted, as follows: _____

TO BE FORWARDED BY EXAMINER TO :

(Fill in name and address
of Education Agency)

Date of examination _____
Signature of examiner _____ Degree _____
Address _____
Name of clinic _____
If clinic case: Number _____

PREFERRED VISUAL ACUITY NOTATIONS

DISTANT VISION. Use Snellen notation with test distance of 6 meters. (Examples: 6/30, 6/18). For acuities less than 6/60 record distance at which 60 meter letter can be recognized as numerator of fraction and 60 as denominator. (For examples: 4/6, 3/60). If the 60 meter letter is not recognized at 1 meter record abbreviation for best distant vision as follows:

HM HAND MOVEMENTS

PLL PERCEIVES AND LOCALIZES LIGHT IN ONE OR MORE QUADRANTS

LP PERCEIVES BUT DOES NOT LOCALISE LIGHT

No LP NO LIGHT PERCEPTION

NEAR VISION. Use standard A.M.A. notation and specify best distance at which pupils can read. (Example: 14/70 at 5 in.)

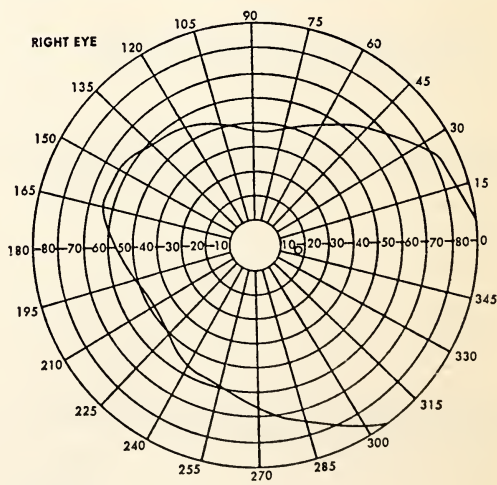
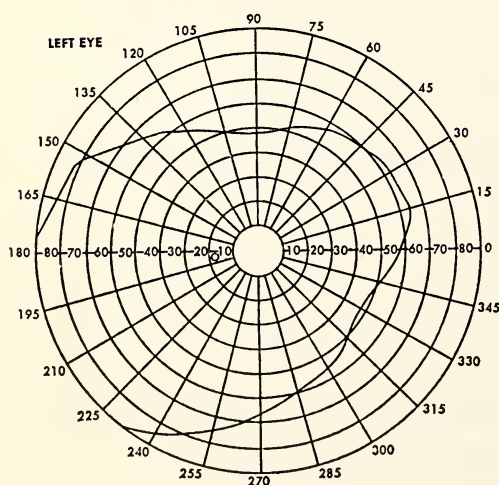
TABLE OF APPROXIMATE EQUIVALENT VISUAL ACUITY NOTATIONS

These notations serve only as an indication of the approximate relationship between recordings of distant and near vision.

Distance			Near		
Snellen			A.M.A.		
Meters	Feet	Decimals	Inches	Jaeger	Metric
6/6	20/20	1.00	14/14	1	0.37 (M)
6/9	20/30	.70	14/21	2	0.50
6/12	20/40	.50	14/28	4	0.70
6/15	20/50	.40	14/35	6	0.87
6/18	20/60	.33	14/42	8	1.00
6/24	20/80	.25	14/56	10	1.50
6/30	20/100	.20	14/70	11	1.75
6/36	20/120	.17	14/84	12	2.00
6/60	20/200	.10	14/140	17	3.50
4/60	12.5/200		14/224	19	6.00
2.3/60	8/200		14/336	20	8.00
1.5/60	5/200		14/560		
1/60	3/200		14/900		

FIELD OF VISION. Record results on chart below.

Type of test used: _____ Illumination in ft. candles: _____



Test object: Colour(s) _____ Size(s) _____ Test object: Colour(s) _____ Size(s) _____

Distance(s): _____ Distance(s): _____

